

Free 25-Hydroxyvitamin D

Nielson, Carrie ; Jones, Kerry; Chun, Rene; Jacobs, Jon; Wang, Ying; Hewison, Martin; Adams, John; Swanson, Christine; Lee, Christine; Vanderschueren, Dirk; Pauwels, Steven; Prentice, Ann; Smith, Richard; Tujin, Shi; Yuqian, Gao; Schepmoes, Athena; Zmuda, Joseph; Lapidus, Jodi; Cauley, Jane; Schoenmaker, Inez

DOI:

[10.1210/jc.2016-1104](https://doi.org/10.1210/jc.2016-1104)

License:

Creative Commons: Attribution-NonCommercial (CC BY-NC)

Document Version

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Citation for published version (Harvard):

Nielson, C, Jones, K, Chun, R, Jacobs, J, Wang, Y, Hewison, M, Adams, J, Swanson, C, Lee, C, Vanderschueren, D, Pauwels, S, Prentice, A, Smith, R, Tujin, S, Yuqian, G, Schepmoes, A, Zmuda, J, Lapidus, J, Cauley, J, Schoenmaker, I, Bouillon, R & Orwoll, E 2016, 'Free 25-Hydroxyvitamin D: Impact of Vitamin D Binding Protein Assays on Racial-Genotypic Associations', *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism*, vol. 101, no. 5, pp. 2226-34. <https://doi.org/10.1210/jc.2016-1104>

[Link to publication on Research at Birmingham portal](#)

General rights

Unless a licence is specified above, all rights (including copyright and moral rights) in this document are retained by the authors and/or the copyright holders. The express permission of the copyright holder must be obtained for any use of this material other than for purposes permitted by law.

- Users may freely distribute the URL that is used to identify this publication.
- Users may download and/or print one copy of the publication from the University of Birmingham research portal for the purpose of private study or non-commercial research.
- User may use extracts from the document in line with the concept of 'fair dealing' under the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 (?)
- Users may not further distribute the material nor use it for the purposes of commercial gain.

Where a licence is displayed above, please note the terms and conditions of the licence govern your use of this document.

When citing, please reference the published version.

Take down policy

While the University of Birmingham exercises care and attention in making items available there are rare occasions when an item has been uploaded in error or has been deemed to be commercially or otherwise sensitive.

If you believe that this is the case for this document, please contact UBIRA@lists.bham.ac.uk providing details and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate.

Free 25-Hydroxyvitamin D: Impact of Vitamin D Binding Protein Assays on Racial-Genotypic Associations

Carrie M. Nielson,* Kerry S. Jones,* Rene F. Chun, Jon M. Jacobs, Ying Wang, Martin Hewison, John S. Adams, Christine M. Swanson, Christine G. Lee, Dirk Vanderschueren, Steven Pauwels, Ann Prentice, Richard D. Smith, Tujin Shi, Yuqian Gao, Athena A. Schepmoes, Joseph M. Zmuda, Jodi Lapidus, Jane A. Cauley, Roger Bouillon,* Inez Schoenmakers,* and Eric S. Orwoll,* for the Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (MrOS) Research Group[†]

Context: Total 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25OHD) is a marker of vitamin D status and is lower in African Americans than in whites. Whether this difference holds for free 25OHD (f25OHD) is unclear, considering reported genetic-racial differences in vitamin D binding protein (DBP) used to calculate f25OHD.

Objectives: Our objective was to assess racial-geographic differences in f25OHD and to understand inconsistencies in racial associations with DBP and calculated f25OHD.

Design: This study used a cross-sectional design.

Setting: The general community in the United States, United Kingdom, and The Gambia were included in this study.

Participants: Men in Osteoporotic Fractures in Men and Medical Research Council studies (N = 1057) were included.

Exposures: Total 25OHD concentration, race, and DBP (GC) genotype exposures were included.

Outcome Measures: Directly measured f25OHD, DBP assessed by proteomics, monoclonal and polyclonal immunoassays, and calculated f25OHD were the outcome measures.

Results: Total 25OHD correlated strongly with directly measured f25OHD (Spearman $r = 0.84$). Measured by monoclonal assay, mean DBP in African-ancestry subjects was approximately 50% lower than in whites, whereas DBP measured by polyclonal DBP antibodies or proteomic methods was not lower in African-ancestry. Calculated f25OHD (using polyclonal DBP assays) correlated strongly with directly measured f25OHD ($r = 0.80-0.83$). Free 25OHD, measured or calculated from polyclonal DBP assays, reflected total 25OHD concentration irrespective of race and was lower in African Americans than in US whites.

Conclusions: Previously reported racial differences in DBP concentration are likely from monoclonal assay bias, as there was no racial difference in DBP concentration by other methods. This confirms the poor vitamin D status of many African-Americans and the utility of total 25OHD in assessing vitamin D in the general population. (*J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 101: 2226–2234, 2016)

ISSN Print 0021-972X ISSN Online 1945-7197

Printed in USA

Copyright © 2016 by the Endocrine Society

This article is published under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial License (CC-BY-NC; <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>).

Received January 12, 2016. Accepted March 11, 2016.

First Published Online March 23, 2016

* C.M.N., K.S.J., R.B., I.S., and E.S.O. contributed equally.

[†] Author affiliations are shown at the bottom of the next page.

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; DBP, vitamin D binding protein; GC, group-specific component; mELISA, monoclonal ELISA; MRC, Medical Research Council; MrOS, Osteoporotic Fractures in Men; 25OHD, total 25-hydroxyvitamin D; 1,25(OH)₂D, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D; pRID, polyclonal radial immunodiffusion; pELISA, polyclonal ELISA; SRM, selected reaction monitoring.

Vitamin D is a precursor of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D ($1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$), with multiple effects in skeletal and extraskelatal tissues (1, 2). Total circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25OHD) is used to diagnose vitamin D deficiency, but vitamin D bioavailability in extrarenal tissues is thought to depend on the small portion of 25OHD that is not bound to serum proteins. The concentration of bioavailable 25OHD (not bound to vitamin D binding protein [DBP]) or free 25OHD (not bound to DBP or albumin) may better reflect 25OHD function (3, 4). In some reports, stronger associations with free or bioavailable 25OHD than with total 25OHD were reported for serum calcium, PTH (5), bone mineral density (6), and vascular outcomes (7), suggesting that free or bioavailable 25OHD may provide a more clinically relevant measure. However, others have reported no improvement over total 25OHD (8). Nevertheless, the role of free 25OHD remains unresolved, as recently highlighted by the US Preventive Services Task Force (9).

Free 25OHD is calculated from the concentrations of total 25OHD, DBP, and albumin, with or without a factor accounting for DBP genotype-specific binding affinities (4, 6, 10, 11). DBP— or group-specific component (GC)—polymorphisms (rs4588 and rs7041) give rise to three major polymorphic isoforms of DBP (GC-1F, GC-1S, and GC-2), the frequencies of which differ globally, with GC-1F alleles more common in populations of African descent (12). Using DBP measured by a monoclonal ELISA, Powe et al reported that DBP was lower in African Americans than in US whites (13). As a result, calculated bioavailable 25OHD concentrations derived from those DBP measures were similar in whites and African Americans, a finding at variance with the lower mean circulating total 25OHD concentration consistently reported in African Americans (14, 15). The finding that low total 25OHD did not necessarily indicate low bioavailable 25OHD gained widespread attention in the medical and lay press (9, 16, 17) and may have important implications for nutritional supplementation policy. However, other publications did not report racial differences in DBP (18–21), and issues have been raised concerning the DBP measurements used by Powe et al (22, 23). Thus, racial differences in vitamin D availability and sufficiency remain uncertain.

To better understand these conflicting findings and investigate racial differences in total and free 25OHD, we con-

ducted studies in cohorts based in the United States, United Kingdom, and The Gambia that included participants of African and European ancestry known to differ in GC genotype distribution. We characterized the molecular forms of circulating DBP through comparison of several DBP assays and proteomic analysis of DBP peptides. In addition, we compared total 25OHD to calculated 25OHD and directly measured free 25OHD and analyzed differences in concentrations by geographic region, race, and GC genotype.

Materials and Methods

Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (MrOS) cohort. The MrOS study enrolled 5994 participants (24). Recruitment occurred in six US communities, primarily through mass mailings. Participants were community-dwelling men older than 65 years of age. Informed consent was obtained, and the institutional review board at each site approved the study. From this cohort, 1020 men (101 African Americans and 919 non-Hispanic whites) had measurements of serum 25OHD and DBP and had GC genotype. Serum free 25OHD was measured in 194 randomly selected non-Hispanic white and 80 African-American participants (see [Supplemental Materials and Methods](#)). The mean age of participants was $74.8 (\pm 6.2)$ years in whites and $71.1 (\pm 5.4)$ in African Americans; and mean body mass index (BMI) was $26.7 (\pm 4.6)$ kg/m^2 in whites and $28.8 (\pm 4.7)$ in African Americans. As described in the following section, age and BMI adjustments were therefore employed to facilitate racial comparisons.

Medical Research Council (MRC) Gambian/UK cohort. Samples were from studies conducted at MRC Keneba, The Gambia, and MRC Human Nutrition Research, Cambridge, UK (19). Studies were approved by the joint Gambian Government-MRC Ethics Committee and the UK National Research Ethics Service, Cambridge Committee, respectively. Participants gave informed, written consent. All were healthy males, aged 25–39 years, and Gambians ($n = 19$) were of the Mandinka ethnic group; UK men ($n = 18$) were self-classified as white European. Plasma 25OHD, DBP, and directly measured free 25OHD concentrations were available for all participants and GC genotypes for a subset with sufficient DNA (Gambia, $n = 17$; UK, $n = 12$). There was no racial-geographic difference in mean age of participants, which was $29.3 (\pm 4.4)$ years in the United Kingdom and $29.1 (\pm 3.2)$ in The Gambia. Mean BMI was $22.6 (\pm 2.3)$ kg/m^2 in the United Kingdom and $21.2 (\pm 1.9)$ in The Gambia.

25OHD and $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ assays. In both cohorts, concentrations of 25OHD and $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$ were measured with mass spectrometry (19, 25, 26).

Bone & Mineral Unit (C.M.N., Y.W., C.M.S., E.S.O.), Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, Oregon 97239; School of Public Health (C.M.N., J.L.), Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, Oregon 97239; Medical Research Council Human Nutrition Research (K.S.J., A.P., I.S.), Cambridge, UK CB1 9NL; Department of Orthopedics (R.F.C.), University of California, Los Angeles, California 90095; Pacific Northwest National Laboratory (J.M.J., R.D.S., T.S., Y.G., A.A.S.), Richland, Washington 99354; Institute of Metabolism and Systems Research (M.H.), University of Birmingham, UK B15 2TT; University of California (J.S.A.), Los Angeles, California 90095; School of Medicine (C.M.S., C.G.L., E.S.O.), Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, Oregon 97239; Portland Veterans Affairs Medical Center (C.G.L.), Oregon 97239; Laboratory of Diagnostic Medicine (D.V.), KU Leuven, 3000 Belgium; Laboratory of Clinical and Experimental Endocrinology (D.V., R.B.), KU Leuven, 3000 Belgium; Department of Cardiovascular Sciences (S.P.), KU Leuven, Belgium 3000; Department of Laboratory Medicine (S.P.), University Hospitals Leuven, 3000 Belgium; MRC Keneba (A.P.), Keneba, The Gambia; and Department of Epidemiology (J.M.Z., J.A.C.), University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania 15261

DBP assays. DBP was measured in all samples by polyclonal radial immunodiffusion (pRID) assay (18). In addition, two different polyclonal ELISA (pELISA) were used to measure DBP concentration: GenWay (GenWay Biotech) in MrOS and Immundiagnostik (Immundiagnostik AG) for the MRC study. Finally, DBP concentration was measured by monoclonal ELISA (mELISA; R&D Systems).

Genotyping. Two nonsynonymous GC single nucleotide polymorphisms were used to define GC diplotypes, rs4588 (Thr436Lys) and rs7041 (Asp432Glu).

Calculation of free 25OHD. Free 25OHD concentrations were calculated using published mathematical models (11).

Free 25OHD assay. Free concentrations of 25OHD were measured by ELISA (DIASource ImmunoAssays) (27, 28) at Future Diagnostics Solutions. This assay was validated by comparison with equilibrium dialysis at 37°C in 15 normal samples yielding a correlation of 0.83. The lower limit of detection was 1.9 pg/ml, and assay precision was less than 6% (29).

Proteomic analyses. Selected reaction monitoring (SRM) mass spectrometry-based assays for DBP peptides encompassing the Thr436Lys and Asp432Glu substitutions, as well as separate peptides with no known sequence variation, were carried out in 120 MrOS serum samples selected to represent each of the six GC genotypes.

Further details of each method are in the [Supplemental Materials and Methods](#).

Statistical analysis. Distributions of each 25OHD and DBP measure were examined for normality and outliers, and pairwise Spearman correlations were calculated in each cohort. Differences in total 25OHD, DBP, and free 25OHD concentrations between racial groups in each cohort were tested with unpaired Student's *t* tests and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. GC genotype differences in mean total 25OHD, DBP, DBP peptide abundance, and free 25OHD were tested by ANOVA in each cohort separately and were followed by post hoc pairwise tests between genotypes. Linear regression was used to test whether associations with race in each cohort persisted after age and BMI adjustment. The model R^2 for each cohort was used to quantify the proportion of variance in DBP concentration that GC genotype contributed for each DBP assay. Analyses were performed in SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc) and Stata 12 (StataCorp).

Results

Total circulating 25OHD concentrations varied by race and geography. UK whites had the lowest mean levels, and the mean total 25OHD was 56% higher in US whites than in African Americans and 137% higher in Gambians than in UK whites (Figure 1). There were similar differences in 1,25(OH)₂D concentrations, albeit of smaller magnitude (11% higher in US whites than African Americans and 67% higher in Gambians than UK whites). Mean DBP concentrations were minimally different across all groups using poly-

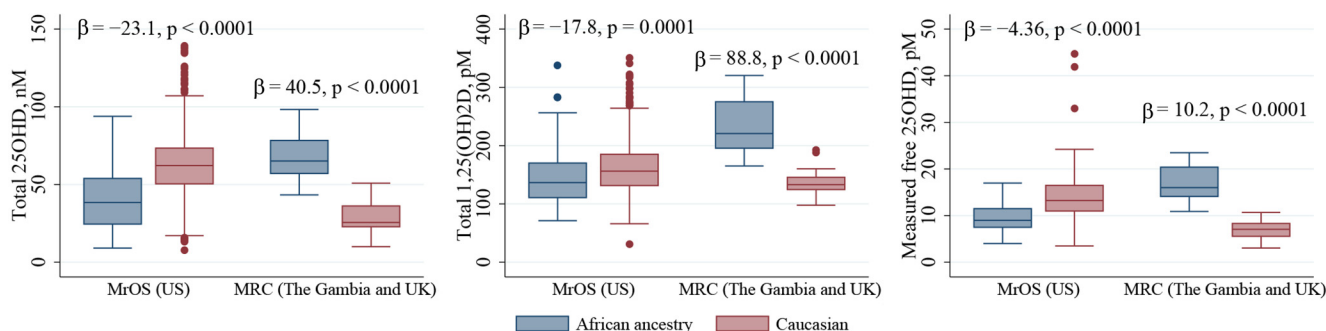
clonal assays, but the mean DBP concentration measured by mELISA was 54% lower in African Americans than in US whites and 52% lower in Gambians than in UK whites (Figure 1). Total 25OHD concentrations were weakly correlated with DBP, regardless of assay type (all Spearman $r \leq 0.28$).

Directly measured free 25OHD concentrations were strongly correlated with total 25OHD in all racial/geographic groups (Figure 2A; from $r = 0.71$ in UK whites to $r = 0.83$ in both groups of African descent, [Supplemental Table 1](#)). Similarly, calculated free 25OHD concentrations derived from polyclonal measures of DBP were highly correlated with total 25OHD (Figure 2B; $r = 0.96$ for pRID calculation, and $r = 0.93$ for pELISA calculation [Supplemental Table 1](#)). Concentrations of free 25OHD calculated from DBP measured by mELISA were less strongly correlated with total 25OHD or directly measured free 25OHD concentrations (Figure 2C, [Supplemental Table 1](#)). Free 25OHD concentrations calculated using a GC-genotype specific affinity generally had lower correlations with concentrations of total 25OHD or measured free 25OHD than that calculated using a constant affinity for all GC isoforms, although correlations were higher for mELISA in some groups ([Supplemental Table 2](#)).

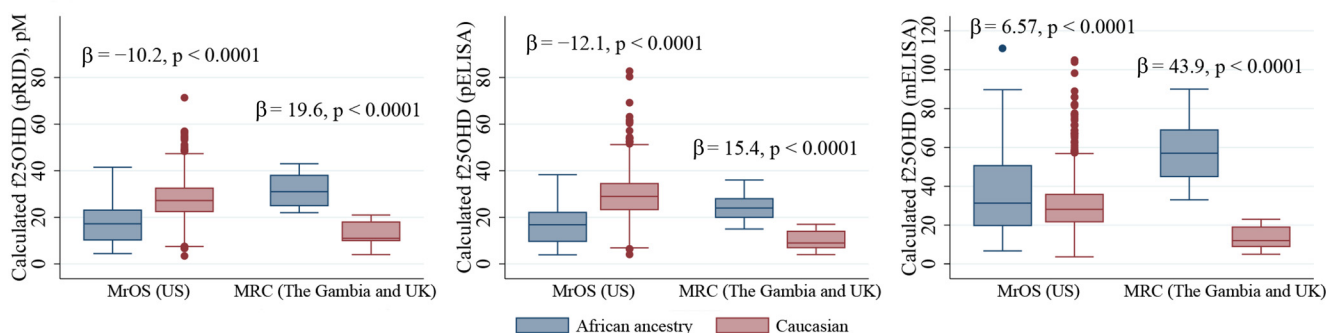
The mean free 25OHD concentration was between 0.02% and 0.09% of the total 25OHD mean in all groups. Racial differences in free 25OHD reflected racial and country differences in total 25OHD when free 25OHD was directly measured or calculated based on polyclonal DBP concentrations; US whites and Gambians had higher free 25OHD than African Americans and UK whites, respectively (Figure 1). However, when free 25OHD was calculated with mELISA DBP, African Americans had a higher mean concentration than US whites (Figure 1).

As expected, there were marked racial differences in the distribution of GC genotypes. Nearly all (>97%) African Americans and all Gambians had a GC-1F allele (1F1F, 1F1S, and 1F2 genotypes), whereas in whites the majority had no 1F allele, and the predominant genotypes were 1S1S and 1S2 (Figure 3). There were striking differences in how DBP assay results were associated with GC genotypes. DBP concentrations measured by mELISA were strongly associated with GC genotypes (Figure 4). GC genotype accounted for 83% of the variation in mELISA DBP. Mean DBP concentrations in those with GC-1F1F and GC-1F2 genotypes were 2.5–3.4 μM lower than the predominant genotype, GC-1S2 (all pairwise comparisons $P < .001$, [Supplemental Table 3](#)). In contrast, GC genotype accounted for only 16% of the variation in pRID DBP, and although genotype was significantly associated with pRID DBP ($p_{\text{ANOVA}} < .001$), no genotypic group differed from another by more than

Direct measures of total and free D



Calculated free 25OHD



Vitamin D binding protein

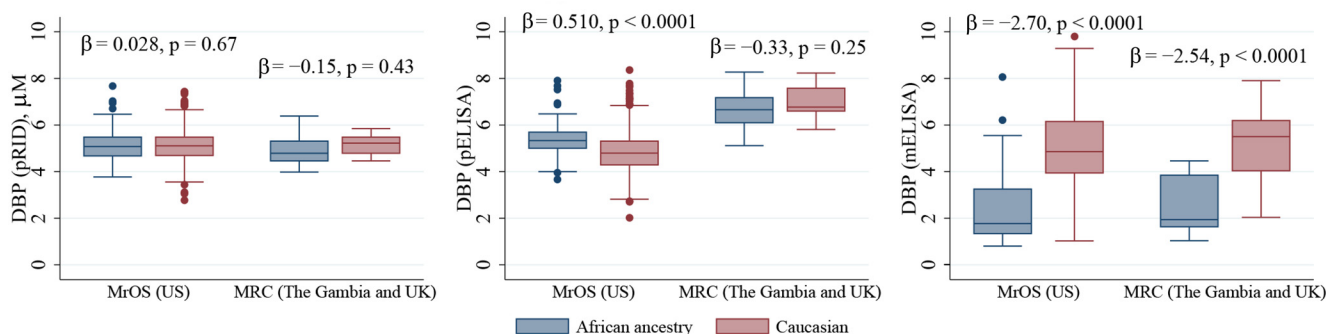


Figure 1. Total 25OHD, 1,25(OH)₂D, free 25OHD, and vitamin D binding protein by race in MrOS and by racial-geographic group in MRC. β coefficients are the age- and BMI-adjusted difference in each measure for African-American men ($n = 101$) as compared to that of non-Hispanic white men ($n = 919$) in MrOS and for Gambian ($n = 19$) compared to UK ($n = 18$) men in MRC. Box and whisker plots show the 25th and 75th percentiles and median. Whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range. Note differences in scale for free 25OHD measures resulting from the larger range of mELISA calculations and narrow range of directly measured free 25OHD. Comparisons were similar for calculated bioavailable 25OHD, which is strongly correlated with free 25OHD ($r = 0.99$). For measured free 25OHD in MrOS, African American $n = 80$ and non-Hispanic white $n = 194$.

0.59 μ M. GC genotype had little influence on DBP measured by pELISA ($R^2 = 0.09$, $p_{\text{ANOVA}} = .02$, Figure 4, Supplemental Table 3).

SRM-based proteomic analyses of genotypically variant regions of DBP demonstrated that the amino acids predicted by the GC alleles were present in serum (Supplemental Figure 1). Moreover, peptides from genetically nonvariant regions were present in all samples and did not have lower abundance in men with a GC-1F allele (Figure 5). These results are consistent with DBP measures using pRID and pELISA, but not with mELISA.

Discussion

Irrespective of race, geographical region, or GC genotype, free 25OHD concentrations, both directly measured and calculated using polyclonal DBP measures, mirror total 25OHD concentrations. We found that African Americans consistently have lower free 25OHD and total 25OHD concentrations than US whites. We also showed that GC genotype determines the forms of circulating DBP peptides and strongly influences the measurement of DBP using a monoclonal ELISA. We posit that a unique sensitivity

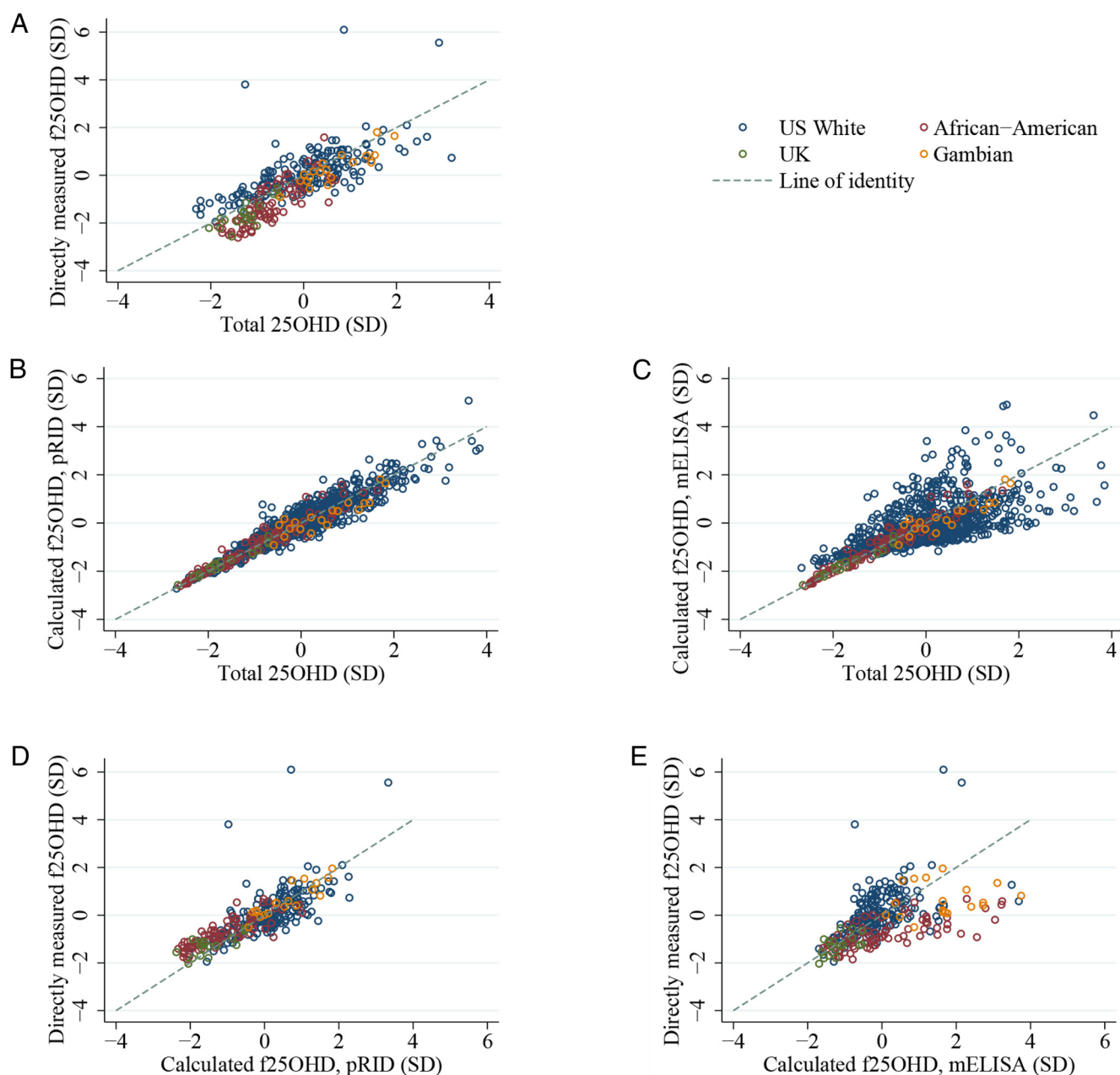


Figure 2. Relationships between total 25OHD and free 25OHD (A–C) and between measured and calculated free 25OHD (D, E). Calculations are the haplotype-constant estimates of free 25OHD, centered at the means and standardized (ie, each data point represents the distance from the mean for the participant). Results for pELISA are not shown but were similar to pRID.

to GC-1F DBP, common in those with African ancestry, underlies the low DBP concentrations assessed with that monoclonal ELISA, resulting in spuriously higher calculated free 25OHD and impeding the interpretation of racial comparisons. The results of several studies using the monoclonal DBP assay to calculate free 25OHD should therefore be reconsidered.

The recent reports (5, 13) of lower DBP concentrations in African Americans and consequently similar free 25OHD levels as in US whites despite a lower total 25OHD stimulated suggestions that concern for low 25OHD levels in African Americans is unfounded and that

guidelines on vitamin D and public health policy should be revised according to race. Our results refute those findings and provide several internally consistent lines of evidence of a higher prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency in African Americans as based on both their free and total 25OHD. They indicate that the guidelines (1) concerning vitamin D and the assessment of vitamin D status on the basis of plasma 25OHD should be applied regardless of race. Although the current study did not address associations with clinical outcomes or whether lower 25OHD concentrations in African Americans might be related to important health consequences (eg, prostate cancer se-

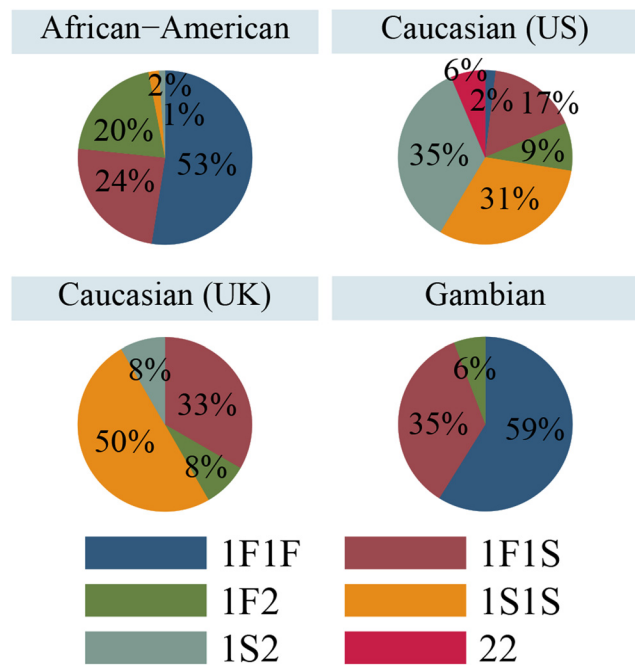


Figure 3. GC genotype by geographic-racial group.

verity (30) and cardiovascular mortality (31)), they do suggest that these remain critical research questions.

Previous studies that concluded that calculated bio-available 25OHD in African Americans is similar to US whites despite differences in total 25OHD (13) depended on the derivation of free 25OHD using results from a monoclonal DBP. Here we show that this assay underestimates DBP concentrations in those with GC-1F alleles, a genotype more common in those of African ancestry and explains similar findings by others using the same monoclonal assay (5, 6, 13, 27, 32, 33). However, when DBP was assessed using immunoassays of DBP with polyclonal antibodies and proteomic methods these GC-dependent differences were not apparent, in line with other proteomic data (21). The lower detection of GC-1F DBP by mELISA, compared to relatively higher concentrations of nonvariant DBP peptides by SRM and higher concentration in polyclonal assays, can best be explained by the inadequate detection of GC-1F by the mELISA. Our direct measurements confirmed lower levels of free 25OHD in African Americans, and we found evidence that the active metabolite concentration and vitamin D activity is reduced (lower mean $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}$). Aloia et al reported that DBP concentrations measured by a polyclonal immunoassay were similar in US blacks and whites (33). However, directly measured free 25OHD was not significantly different between races, despite a lower total 25OHD concentration in African Americans. Although we cannot explain this discrepancy, we note that this is surprising; if the DBP concentration is similar in African Americans and whites, given a lower total 25OHD concentration, the law

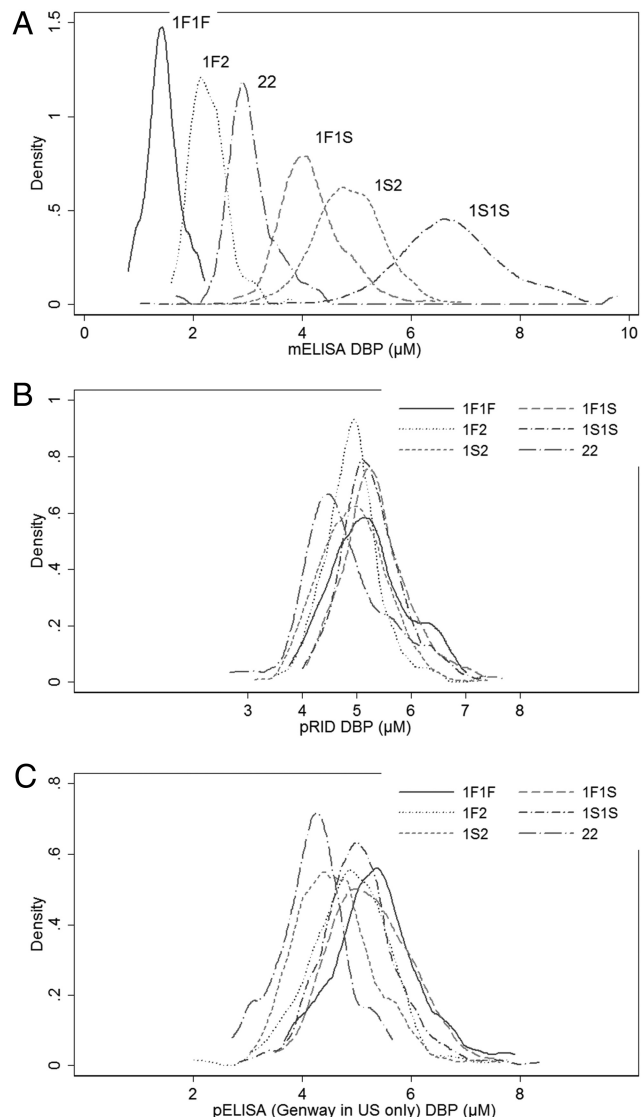


Figure 4. Circulating DBP concentrations by genotype, as assessed by mELISA (A), pRID (B), and pELISA (C). Genotype accounted for 83% of the variation in mELISA DBP and $\leq 16\%$ for pRID and pELISA DBP. Concentrations of DBP differed by genotype (all $p_{\text{ANOVA}} < .001$), with GC-1F1F and 1F2 genotypes having the lowest values in the mELISA. In pRID and pELISA, GC-22 had significantly lower mean DBP than other genotypes (all pairwise comparisons provided in Supplemental Table 3).

of mass action predicts that the free concentration of 25OHD will be proportionally lower. Here it was assumed that the association constant DBP-25OHD is the same across genotypes as suggested by most data (34–36). If the affinity of 25OHD for GC-1F is higher than for other genotypes as suggested by one study based on the binding affinity of a tracer for vitamin D rather than 25OHD (37), then the free 25OHD concentration would be even lower in African Americans.

We show that in African Americans, 25OHD concentrations (total and free) are lower than in US whites. In contrast, in Gambians, total and free 25OHD concentrations are higher than in UK whites. This cannot be

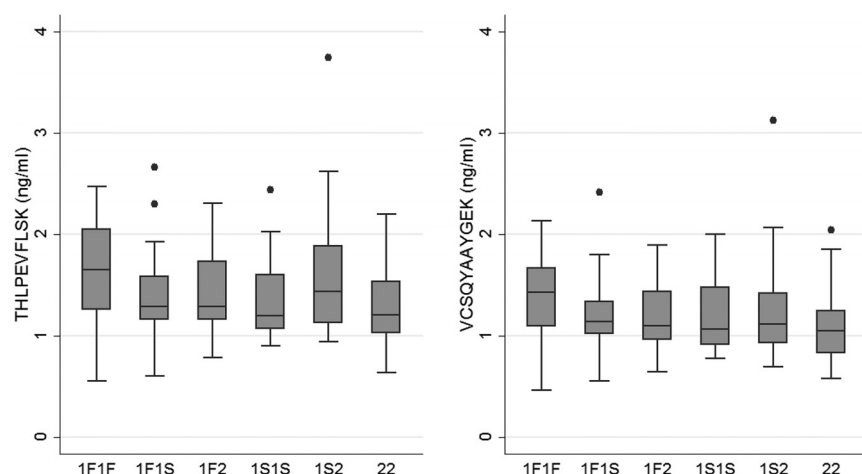


Figure 5. SRM results for two nonvariant peptides by GC genotype ($n = 120$, with 20 participants per GC genotype). The distribution of nonvariant peptides had similar concentrations across GC genotype. Participants with GC-22 had significantly lower concentrations than GC-1F1F ($P \leq .03$); however, no other genotype comparisons were statistically significantly different. Box and whisker plots show the 25th and 75th percentiles and median. Whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range.

explained by racial differences in DBP concentrations, genotype, or affinity for 25OHD, but is consistent with the differences in total 25OHD between these groups, presumably the result of differences in their exposure to UV radiation and dermal production of vitamin D. Although our cohorts of Gambians and UK whites were small, our results mirror those from other African and UK studies (17, 38).

In our studies, calculated free 25OHD concentrations were higher than directly measured values; this may be due to lack of standardization of the direct measurements of free 25OHD and DBP or due to some uncertainty in the association constants used to calculate free 25OHD. However, the relative racial differences in free 25OHD were consistent for directly measured and calculated free 25OHD derived from DBP using polyclonal assays.

Although our study supports the comparability of total 25OHD with free 25OHD in terms of racial associations, there is need to improve the understanding of vitamin D metabolism through further evaluation of free 25OHD and other metabolites and their clinical relevance. Although free 25OHD represents less than 0.1% of the total 25OHD concentration, it may be more important for biological activity in most tissues. DBP undoubtedly has a central role in vitamin D biology; it may be involved in macrophage and osteocyte activation and may influence 25OHD concentration and metabolism (3, 19). There may be particular clinical value of free 25OHD measures in situations with large variation in circulating DBP concentrations (eg, pregnancy, estrogen use, liver or kidney disease) (9, 27). This idea

is supported by knowledge that for some steroid hormones (eg, testosterone, thyroxine) measures of the free fraction may have more value than total levels (39). This question is particularly complex because gaps remain in our understanding of transport, storage, and distribution volume of the vitamin D metabolites; moreover the role of DBP in cellular uptake and subsequent metabolism and activity of vitamin D metabolites in different tissues remains to be further explored. Moreover, 25OHD is an intermediate metabolite with low affinity for the vitamin D receptor and reflects tissue availability of 25OHD for further hydroxylation into the more active metabolite, 1,25(OH)₂D.

Free 1,25(OH)₂D concentration is potentially a better reflection of its biological activity than total 1,25(OH)₂D concentration (10, 40).

Because calculated free 25OHD derives from measures of DBP, the accuracy of DBP assays in diverse populations is critical. Analyses by GC genotype suggest that the large racial differences in circulating DBP concentration are assay-dependent and related to GC genotype specific differences in performance of the monoclonal assay. This was confirmed by targeted proteomic analysis, showing that the concentrations of DBP peptides are not lower in individuals with GC-1F allele. Our results illustrate the importance of considering genetic variation in the accurate and complete determination of circulating protein concentrations.

In conclusion, previously reported calculations of higher bioavailable 25OHD in African Americans were influenced by GC genotype-dependent variations in DBP assay performance. In our studies, free 25OHD reflected total 25OHD, and the mean free 25OHD concentration was significantly lower in African Americans and UK whites than in US whites and Gambians, respectively, consistent with their mean total 25OHD concentration. Therefore, total 25OHD can be used in the general population as a marker of vitamin D status, irrespective of race or DBP genotype. In practice, clinicians should continue to measure total 25OHD in African Americans, and should continue to interpret low values, as defined by the Institute of Medicine, as an indication for supplementation.

Acknowledgments

Address all correspondence and requests for reprints to: Roger Bouillon, MD, PhD, Clinical and Experimental Endocrinology,

KU Leuven, O&NI Herestraat 49, Box 902, Room 09.527, 3000 Leuven, Belgium. E-mail: roger.bouillon@med.kuleuven.be.

The Osteoporotic Fractures in Men (MrOS) Study is supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH) funding. The following institutes provide support: the National Institute on Aging, the National Institute of Arthritis and Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases (NIAMS), the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences, and NIH Roadmap for Medical Research under the following grant numbers: U01 AG027810, U01 AG042124, U01 AG042139, U01 AG042140, U01 AG042143, U01 AG042145, U01 AG042168, U01 AR066160, and UL1 TR000128. The research in the United Kingdom and The Gambia were funded by the Medical Research Council (program codes U105960371, U123261351, MC-A760-5QX00) and the Department for International Development (DFID) under the MRC/DFID Concordat agreement. Additionally, portions of the experimental work described herein were performed in the Environmental Molecular Sciences Laboratory, a national scientific user facility sponsored by the Department of Energy and located at Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, which is operated by Battelle Memorial Institute for the Department of Energy under Contract DE-AC05-76RL0 1830. Portions of this work were supported by NIHP41GM103493 (to R.D.S.). Free 25OHD assay provided by DIAsource ImmunoAssays SA (Belgium) and Future Diagnostics Solutions BV (Netherlands), an ELISA based on DIAsource patented monoclonal antibodies.

Author contributions: C.M.N. had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. C.M.N., K.S.J., and Y.W. analyzed the data.

Disclosure Summary: C.M.N. is funded by NIAMS K01 AR062655. K.S.J., I.S., and A.P. were funded by the Medical Research Council (program codes U105960371, U123261351, MC-A760-5QX00) and the DFID under the MRC/DFID Concordat agreement. M.W. and J.S.A. were funded under NIAMS R01 AR063910. C.M.S. is supported by NIH grant T32 DK007674-20. D.V. receives funding from the Research Foundation Flanders (grant number G. 0858.11) and a grant from the KU Leuven (GOA 15/0/01). C.G.L. receives support from a VA Clinical Science Research and Development Career Development Award, Project number 5IK2CW000729-02. S.P. is supported by the Fund for Scientific Research Flanders (Clinical Fellowship grant 1700314N).

References

1. Institute of Medicine. 2011 Dietary reference intakes for calcium and vitamin D. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
2. Rosen CJ, Adams JS, Bikle DD, et al. The nonskeletal effects of vitamin D: an Endocrine Society scientific statement. *Endocr Rev*. 2012;33:456–492.
3. Chun RF, Peercy BE, Orwoll ES, Nielson CM, Adams JS, Hewison M. Vitamin D and DBP: the free hormone hypothesis revisited. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*. 2014;144 Pt A:132–137.
4. Johnsen MS, Grimnes G, Figenschau Y, Torjesen PA, Almas B, Jorde R. Serum free and bio-available 25-hydroxyvitamin D correlate better with bone density than serum total 25-hydroxyvitamin D. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest*. 2014;74:177–183.

5. Bhan I, Powe CE, Berg AH, et al. Bioavailable vitamin D is more tightly linked to mineral metabolism than total vitamin D in incident hemodialysis patients. *Kidney Int*. 2012;82:84–89.
6. Powe CE, Ricciardi C, Berg AH, et al. Vitamin D-binding protein modifies the vitamin D-bone mineral density relationship. *J Bone Miner Res*. 2011;26:1609–1616.
7. Ashraf AP, Alvarez JA, Dudenbostel T, et al. Associations between vascular health indices and serum total, free and bioavailable 25-hydroxyvitamin D in adolescents. *PLoS ONE*. 2014;9:e114689.
8. Jemielita TO, Leonard MB, Baker J, et al. Association of 25-hydroxyvitamin D with areal and volumetric measures of bone mineral density and parathyroid hormone: impact of vitamin D-binding protein and its assays. *Osteoporos Int*. 2016;27:617–626.
9. LeFevre ML. Screening for vitamin D deficiency in adults: U.S. Preventive services task force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med*. 2015;162:133–140.
10. Bouillon R, Van Assche FA, Van Baelen H, Heyns W, De Moor P. Influence of the vitamin D-binding protein on the serum concentration of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃: significance of the free 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ concentration. *J Clin Invest*. 1981;67:589–596.
11. Chun RF, Peercy BE, Adams JS, Hewison M. Vitamin D binding protein and monocyte response to 25-hydroxyvitamin D and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D: analysis by mathematical modeling. *PLoS One*. 2012;7:e30773.
12. Kambou MI, Ferrell RE. Ethnic variation in vitamin D-binding protein (GC): a review of isoelectric focusing studies in human populations. *Hum Genet*. 1986;72:281–293.
13. Powe CE, Evans MK, Wenger J, et al. Vitamin D-binding protein and vitamin D status of black Americans and white Americans. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;369:1991–2000.
14. Hannan MT, Litman HJ, Araujo AB, et al. Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D and bone mineral density in a racially and ethnically diverse group of men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2008;93:40–46.
15. Looker AC, Pfeiffer CM, Lacher DA, Schleicher RL, Picciano MF, Yetley EA. Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D status of the US population: 1988–1994 compared with 2000–2004. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2008;88:1519–1527.
16. Bhan I. Vitamin D binding protein and bone health. *Int J Endocrinol*. 2014;2014:561214.
17. Durazo-Arzu RA, Camacho P, Bovet P, et al. 25-Hydroxyvitamin D in African-origin populations at varying latitudes challenges the construct of a physiologic norm. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2014;100:908–914.
18. Bouillon R, Baelen HV, Moor PD. The measurement of the vitamin D-binding protein in human serum. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1977;45:225–231.
19. Jones KS, Assar S, Harnpanich D, et al. 25(OH)D₂ half-life is shorter than 25(OH)D₃ half-life and is influenced by DBP concentration and genotype. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2014;99:3373–3381.
20. Winters SJ, Chennubhatla R, Wang C, Miller JJ. Influence of obesity on vitamin D-binding protein and 25-hydroxy vitamin D levels in African American and white women. *Metabolism*. 2009;58:438–442.
21. Henderson CM, Lutsey PL, Misialek JR, et al. Measurement by a novel LC-MS/MS methodology reveals similar serum concentrations of vitamin D-binding protein in blacks and whites. *Clin Chem*. 2016;62:179–187.
22. Bouillon R, Jones K, Schoenmakers I. Vitamin D-binding protein and vitamin D in Blacks and Whites. *N Engl J Med*. 2014;370:879.
23. Hollis BW, Bikle DD. Vitamin D-binding protein and vitamin D in blacks and whites. *N Engl J Med*. 2014;370:879–880.
24. Orwoll E, Blank JB, Barrett-Connor E, et al. Design and baseline characteristics of the osteoporotic fractures in men (MrOS) study—a large observational study of the determinants of fracture in older men. *Contemp Clin Trials*. 2005;26:569–585.
25. Singh RJ, Taylor RL, Reddy GS, Grebe SKG. C-3 epimers can account for a significant proportion of total circulating 25-Hydroxyvi-

- tamin D in infants, complicating accurate measurement and interpretation of vitamin D status. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2006;91:3055–3061.
26. Casetta B, Jans I, Billen J, Vanderschueren D, Bouillon R. Development of a method for the quantification of $1\alpha,25(\text{OH})_2$ -vitamin D_3 in serum by liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry without derivatization. *Eur J Mass Spectrom.* 2010;16:81–89.
27. Schwartz JB, Lai J, Lizaola B, et al. A comparison of measured and calculated free 25(OH) vitamin D levels in clinical populations. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;99:1631–1637.
28. Schwartz JB, Lai J, Lizaola B, et al. Variability in free 25(OH) vitamin D levels in clinical populations. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol.* 2014;144 Pt A:156–158.
29. Heureux N, Anciaux M, Poncelet M, et al. Development of an ELISA for the measurement of free 25OHD vitamin D. *Endocrine Abstracts.* 2015;37.
30. Murphy AB, Nyame Y, Martin IK, et al. Vitamin D deficiency predicts prostate biopsy outcomes. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2014;20:2289–2299.
31. Fiscella K, Franks P. Vitamin D, race, and cardiovascular mortality: findings from a national US sample. *Ann Fam Med.* 2010;8:11–18.
32. Ponda MP, McGee D, Breslow JL. Vitamin D-binding protein levels do not influence the effect of vitamin D repletion on serum PTH and calcium: data from a randomized, controlled trial. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;99:2494–2499.
33. Aloia J, Mikhail M, Dhaliwal R, et al. Free 25(OH)D and the vitamin D paradox in African Americans. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2015;100:3356–3363.
34. Bouillon R, van Baelen H, de Moor P. Comparative study of the affinity of the serum vitamin D-binding protein. *J Steroid Biochem.* 1980;13:1029–1034.
35. Boutin B, Galbraith RM, Arnaud P. Comparative affinity of the major genetic variants of human group-specific component (vitamin D-binding protein) for 25-(OH) vitamin D. *J Steroid Biochem.* 1989;32:59–63.
36. Kawakami M, Imawari M, Goodman DS. Quantitative studies of the interaction of cholecalciferol ((vitamin D_3) and its metabolites with different genetic variants of the serum binding protein for these sterols. *Biochem J.* 1979;179:413–423.
37. Arnaud J, Constans J. Affinity differences for vitamin D metabolites associated with the genetic isoforms of the human serum carrier protein (DBP). *Hum Genet.* 1993;92:183–188.
38. Redmond J, Jarjou LM, Zhou B, Prentice A, Schoenmakers I. Ethnic differences in calcium, phosphate and bone metabolism. *Proc Nutr Soc.* 2014;73:340–351.
39. Bartalena L, Robbins J. Variations in thyroid hormone transport proteins and their clinical implications. *Thyroid.* 1992;2:237–245.
40. Bikle DD, Gee E, Halloran B, Haddad JG. Free 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D levels in serum from normal subjects, pregnant subjects, and subjects with liver disease. *J Clin Invest.* 1984;74:1966–1971.